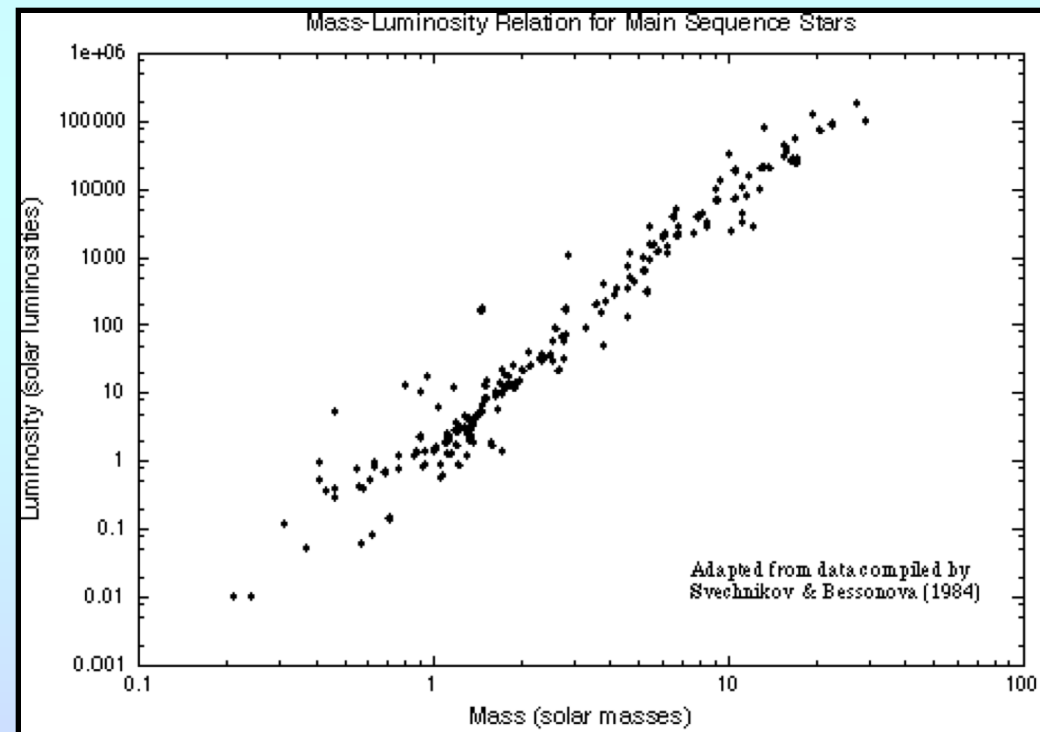
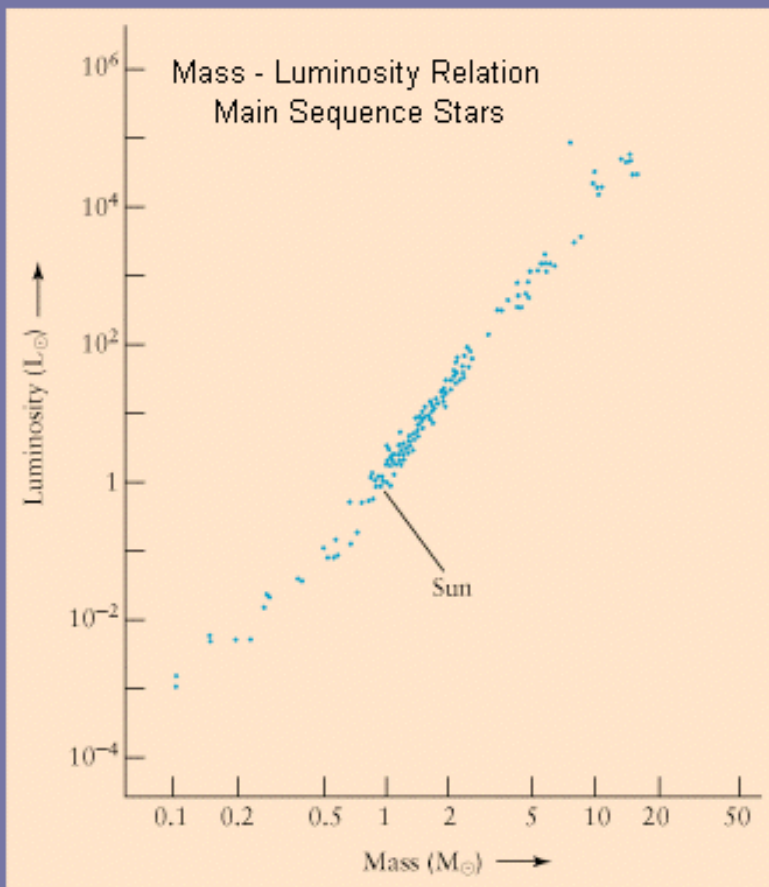
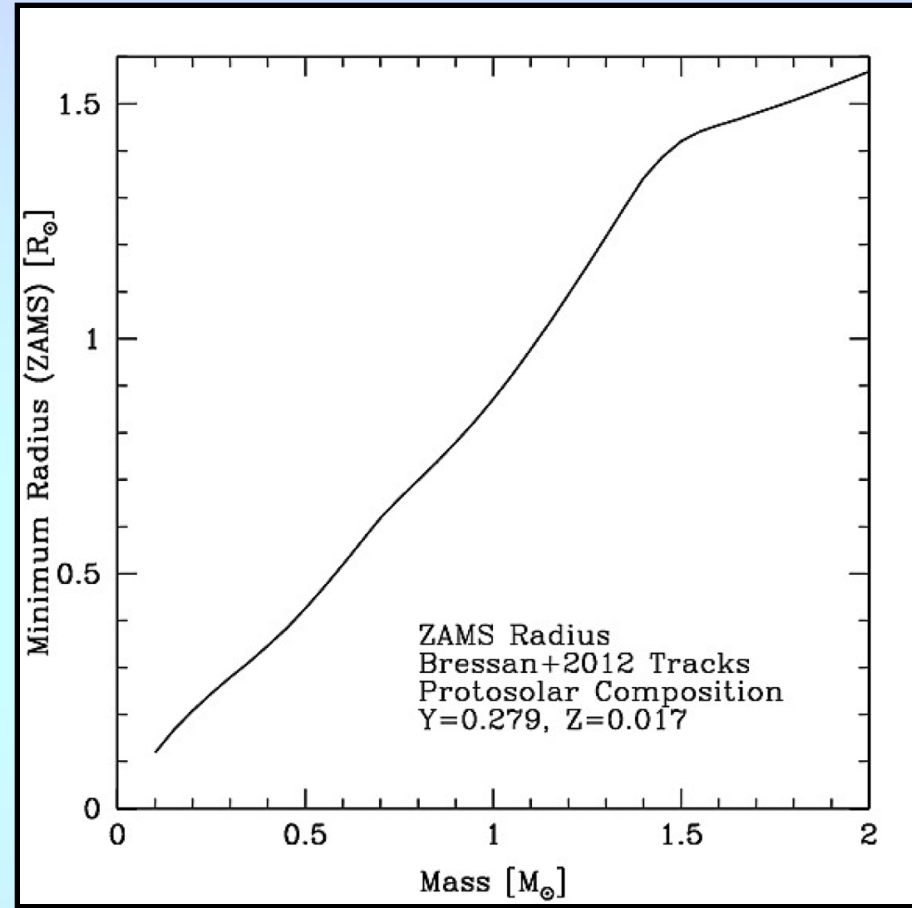
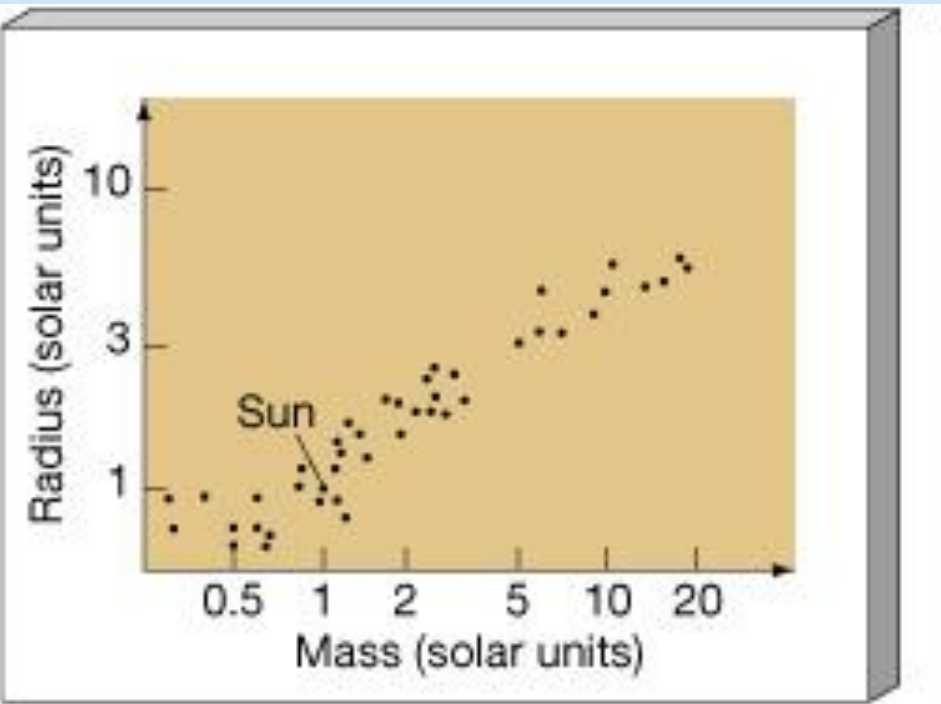


# Stellar Masses and the Main Sequence

Measurements of main-sequence stars demonstrate that there is a mass-luminosity relationship, i.e.,  $L \propto M^\eta$ . For  $M > 1 M_\odot$   $\eta \sim 3.88$ , while at lower masses, the relation flattens out. A good rule-of-thumb is  $L \propto M^\eta$ , with  $\eta \sim 3.5$ .



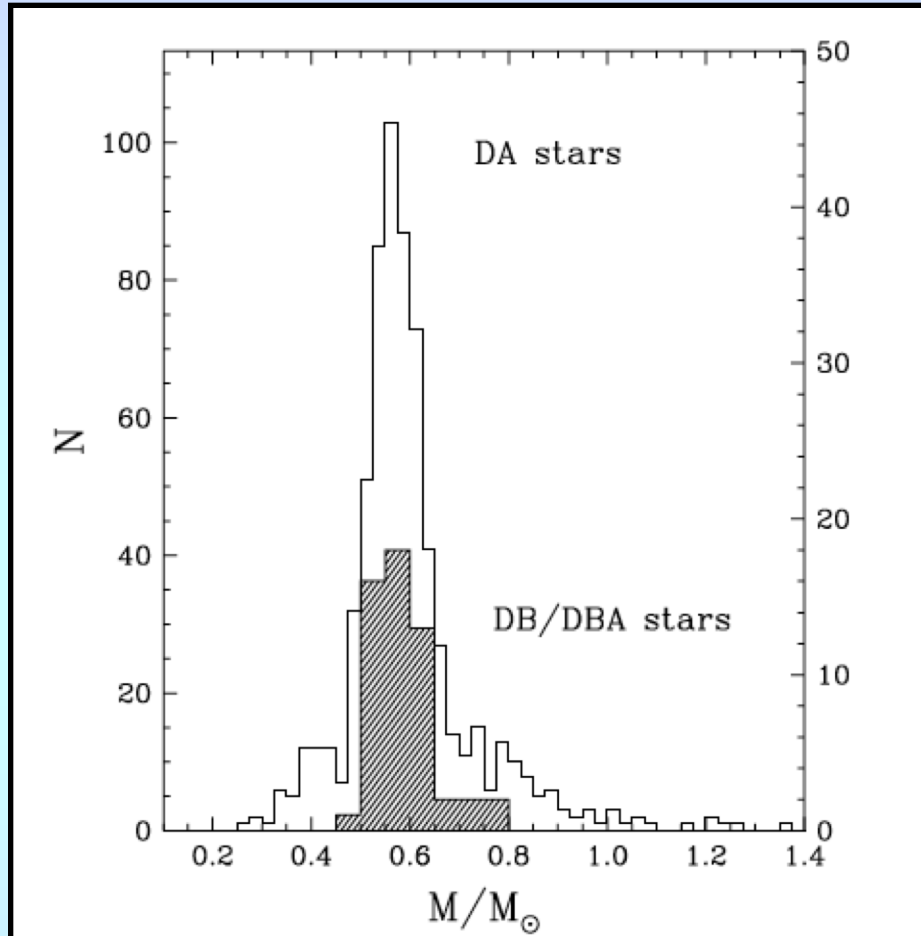
# Main Sequence Mass-Radius Relation



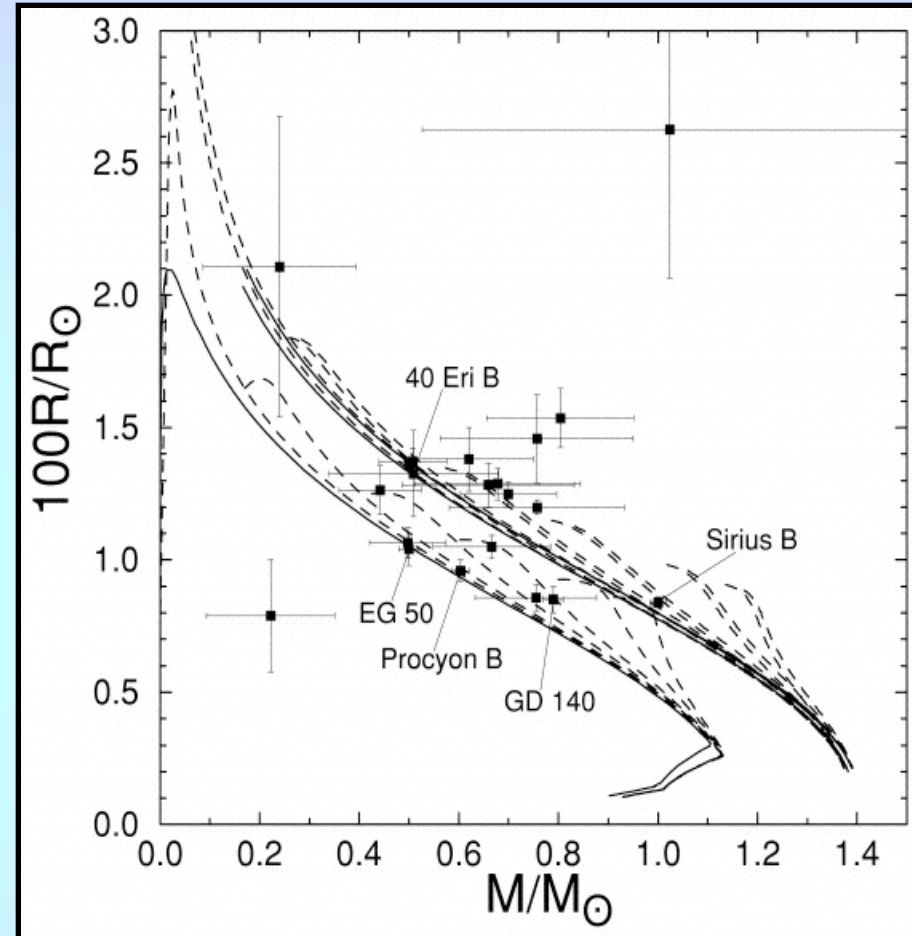
There is also a mass-radius relation for main-sequence stars. When parameterized via a power law,  $R \propto M^{\xi}$ ,  $\xi \sim 0.57$  for masses  $M > 1 M_{\odot}$ , and  $\xi \sim 0.8$  for  $M < 1 M_{\odot}$ .



# Stellar Masses for White Dwarfs



The masses of white dwarf stars are all less than  $1.4 M_{\odot}$ . Most are  $\sim 0.59 M_{\odot}$ .



There is also an inverse mass-radius relation for white dwarfs. The simple theory says  $M \propto R^{\alpha}$ , with  $\alpha = -1/3$ .

# Numbers to Keep in Mind

- $\tau_{\odot} \sim 10 \text{ Gyr} = \text{Main sequence lifetime of the Sun}$
- $1 M_{\odot} \sim 2 \times 10^{33} \text{ gm} = \text{Mass of the Sun}$
- $1 L_{\odot} \sim 4 \times 10^{33} \text{ ergs/sec} = \text{Luminosity of the Sun}$
- $1 R_{\odot} \sim 7 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm} = \text{Radius of the Sun}$
- $Q \sim 6.3 \times 10^{18} \text{ ergs/gm} = \text{Energy from hydrogen fusion}$
- $\Delta m \sim 27 \text{ MeV} = \text{mass defect for hydrogen fusion}$
- $\Delta m \sim 0.7\% = \text{percent mass defect for hydrogen fusion}$
- $X \sim 0.75 = \text{fraction of hydrogen (by mass) in the Sun}$
- $Y \sim 0.23 = \text{fraction of helium (by mass) in the Sun}$
- $Z \sim 0.02 = \text{fraction of “metals” (by mass) in the Sun}$

# Stellar Timescales

Before starting to discuss how stars work, it is important to have an order-of-magnitude feel for stellar timescales. They are the shortcut to everything!

- **The Nuclear Timescale:** How long will a star live? (In other words, how long will it take to use up its nuclear fuel?)

$$\tau_{\text{nuc}} = \frac{\text{Fuel}}{\text{Rate of Consumption}} = \frac{QM}{L}$$

For hydrogen fusion,  $Q = 6.3 \times 10^{18}$  ergs/gm. (If the star is fusing helium, the coefficient is an order of magnitude smaller.) Notes:

- Main sequence stars will only consume  $\sim 0.1$  of their available fuel before they must adjust their structure.
- You can scale to the Sun:  $\tau_{\text{nuc}} = 10^{10}$  years.

# Stellar Timescales

- **The Thermal Timescale:** How long does it take for a star to adjust its structure? (How long does it take to release its energy?) This is also called the Kelvin-Helmholtz timescale

$$\tau_{\text{KH}} = \frac{\text{Gravitational Energy}}{\text{Rate of Consumption}} = \frac{GM^2}{RL}$$

This describes how long a star can shine with no nuclear energy generation. Alternatively, it describes how long it takes energy produced by gravitational contraction to work its way out. For the Sun, this number is  $\sim 10^8$  years.

# Stellar Timescales

- **The Dynamical Timescale:** How long does it take a star's interior to feel changes at its surface? (For instance, if a star accretes mass, how long would it take the interior to feel the extra weight?) Alternatively, how long does it take an object to “fall” to the star's core (under constant  $g$ )?

$$\tau_{\text{dyn}} = \frac{\text{Size of the Star}}{\text{Speed of Pressure Wave}} = \left( \frac{R^3}{G M} \right)^{1/2} = \left( \frac{R}{g} \right)^{1/2}$$

Note: this is equivalent to the free-fall time, and it's also equivalent to Kepler's 3<sup>rd</sup> law. For the Sun,  $\tau_{\text{dyn}} \sim 30$  minutes.

# Stellar Timescales

- **The Mass-Loss Timescale:** How long does it take for a star to lose all its mass via its wind?

$$\tau_{ML} = \frac{\text{Mass of Star}}{\text{Mass Loss Rate}} = \frac{M}{\dot{M}}$$

For the Sun today, this is  $\sim 10^{13}$  years.

Note: for most (but not all) stars, the nuclear, thermal, dynamical, and mass-loss timescales are very different. This makes stellar structure and evolution easy to model. The complications arise when two or more timescales become comparable.

# Stellar Structure

The internal structure of most stars can be computed easily(?) by solving 4 simultaneous differential equations with 4 unknowns.

Mass Conservation:  $\frac{dM(r)}{dr} = 4\pi r^2 \rho(r)$

Momentum Conservation:  $\frac{dP(r)}{dr} = -g\rho = -\frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \rho(r)$

Energy Conservation:  $\frac{dL(r)}{dr} = 4\pi r^2 \rho(r) \varepsilon(\rho, T)$

Thermal Structure:  $\frac{dT(r)}{dr} = \frac{dP(r)}{dr} \frac{dT}{dP} = \frac{dP}{dr} \frac{T}{P} \left( \frac{d \ln T}{d \ln P} \right) = \frac{dP}{dr} \frac{T}{P} \nabla$

where  $P = P(\rho, \mu, T)$

$$\varepsilon(\rho, T) = \varepsilon_{\text{nuclear}} - \varepsilon_{\text{neutrino}} + \varepsilon_{\text{gravitational}} = \text{energy generation}$$

$$\nabla = \frac{d \ln T}{d \ln P} = \frac{3\kappa(\rho, T) L P}{16\pi a c G M T^4} \text{ or } \nabla_{\text{ad}}$$

$$\kappa(\rho, T) = \text{opacity}$$



# Stellar Structure

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Disclaimer: I wrote these equations for easy of understanding and used radius as the independent variable. Real calculations of stellar structure use mass as the independent variable.

# Digression: Mean Molecular Weight

Mean molecular weight ( $\mu$ ) is defined as mass per unit mole of material, or, alternatively, the mean mass of a particle in Atomic Mass Units. Thus, number density is related to the mass density,  $\rho$ , by

$$n = \frac{\rho}{\mu m_a} = \frac{\rho N_{\text{avo}}}{\mu}$$

Often, number density is split into two terms, one for ions

$$n_I = \sum_i n_i = \rho N_{\text{avo}} \sum_i \frac{x_i}{A_i} = \frac{\rho N_{\text{avo}}}{\mu_I} \quad \text{where} \quad \mu_I = \left( \sum_i \frac{x_i}{A_i} \right)^{-1}$$

And one for the (massless) electrons

$$n_e = \rho N_{\text{avo}} \sum_i \frac{x_i}{A_i} f_i Z_i = \frac{\rho N_{\text{avo}}}{\mu_e} \quad \text{where} \quad \mu_e = \left( \sum_i \frac{Z_i x_i f_i}{A_i} \right)^{-1}$$

where  $x_i$  is the mass fraction of the species,  $Z_i$  is its atomic number,  $A_i$ , its atomic mass, and  $f_i$ , the fraction of electrons that are free.

# Mean Molecular Weight -- Simplification

In stars, the expressions for mean molecular weight can be greatly simplified. For example, the fraction of heavy elements in a star is small ( $Z \sim 0.02$ ), so

$$\mu_I = \left( \sum_i \frac{x_i}{A_i} \right)^{-1} = \left( \frac{X}{1} + \frac{Y}{4} + \frac{Z}{\sim 14} \right)^{-1} \approx \left( X + \frac{1-X}{4} \right)^{-1} = \frac{4}{1+3X}$$

Also, if we assume that the gas in the interior of a star is (almost) entirely ionized,  $f_i \sim 1$ . And, while hydrogen has  $Z_i/A_i = 1$ , most other elements have  $Z_i/A_i \sim 1/2$ . So

$$\mu_e = \left( \sum_i \frac{Z_i x_i f_i}{A_i} \right)^{-1} = \left( X + \frac{1}{2}Y + \frac{1}{2}Z \right)^{-1} = \left( X + \frac{1-X}{2} \right)^{-1} = \frac{2}{1+X}$$

The combined mean molecular weight is therefore

$$\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{1}{\mu_I} + \frac{1}{\mu_e}$$

# Equation of State

To solve the equations of stellar structure, one must also know the relationship between pressure, density, and temperature and mean molecular weight. This is called the equation of state. The pressure comes from 3 sources, i.e.,  $P = P_{\text{rad}} + P_{\text{ion}} + P_{\text{electron}}$ .

- Radiation pressure:  $P_{\text{rad}} = \frac{1}{3} a T^4$
- Ion pressure (ideal gas):  $P_{\text{ion}} = \frac{\rho}{\mu_i m_a} k T$
- Electron pressure: In most main sequence stars, electrons act as an ideal gas, but in the cores of giants and very low-mass main-sequence stars, partial degeneracy can occur. One must then solve Fermi-Dirac integrals, i.e.,

$$P_e = \frac{4\pi}{3h^3} \frac{(2m_e kT)^{5/2}}{m_e} \int_0^\infty \frac{\eta^{3/2}}{1 + e^{\eta - \psi}} d\eta \quad \text{where} \quad \psi = \ln \left\{ \frac{n_e h^3}{2(2\pi m_e kT)^{3/2}} \right\}$$

# Opacity

Opacity is the opposite of transmittance. To get the appropriate (Rosseland) mean, you have to integrate over the blackbody function. Opacity is given as digital tables in temperature and density, but there are rough approximations:

- Electron (Thomson) scattering:

$$\kappa_e = \frac{n_e \sigma_e}{\rho} = 0.2(1 + X) \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$$

- Free-free absorption (Kramer's style opacity):

$$\kappa_{\text{ff}} \sim 10^{23} \frac{Z^2}{\mu_e \mu_I} \rho T^{-7/2} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$$

- Bound-free absorption (Kramer's style opacity):

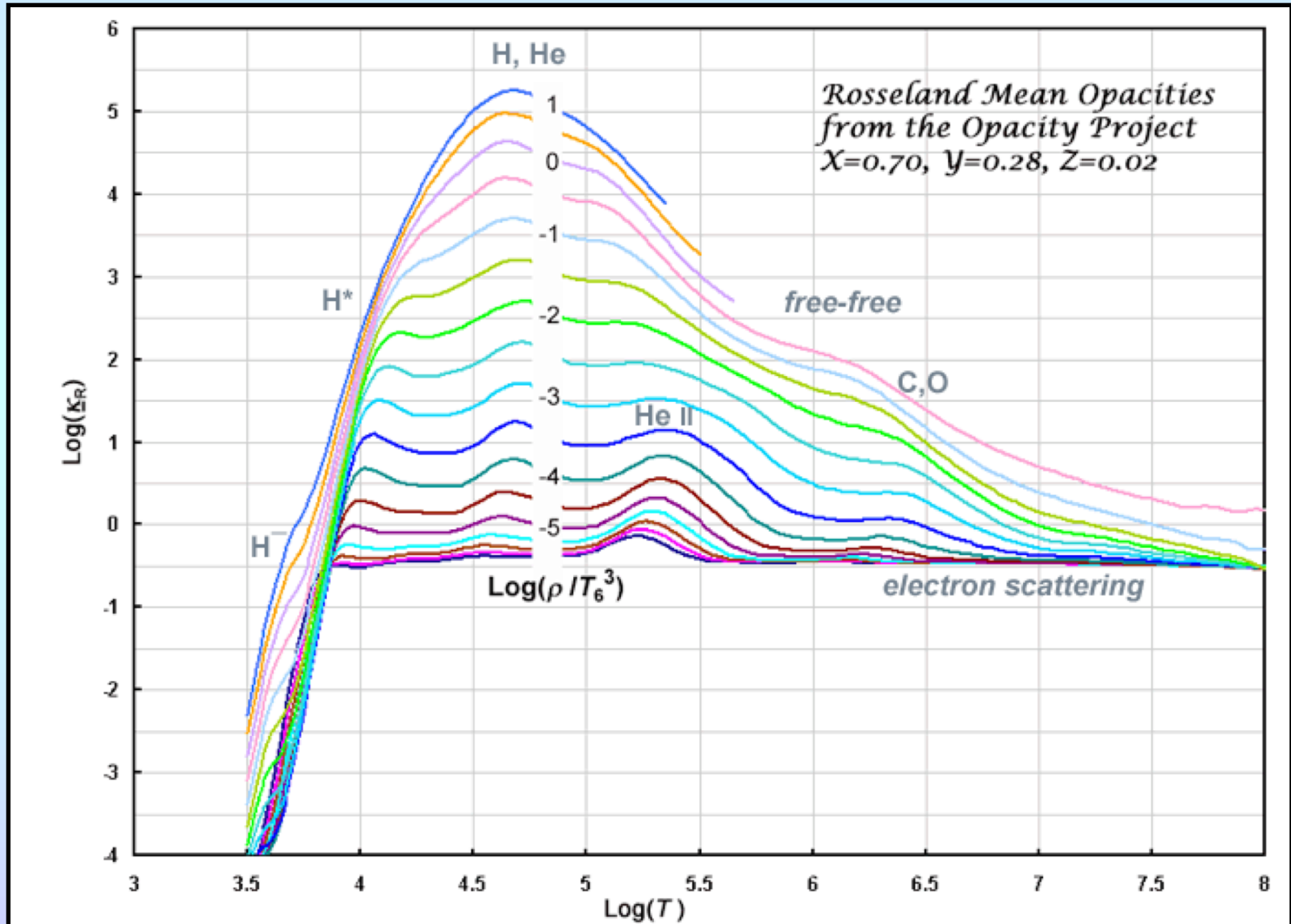
$$\kappa_{\text{bf}} \sim 10^{25} (1 + X) \rho T^{-7/2} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$$

- Bound-bound absorption (complex, but roughly Kramers)
- H<sup>-</sup> opacity ( $\text{H}^- + h\nu \rightleftharpoons \text{H} + e^-$ ): complicated, but below  $\sim 10^4$  K

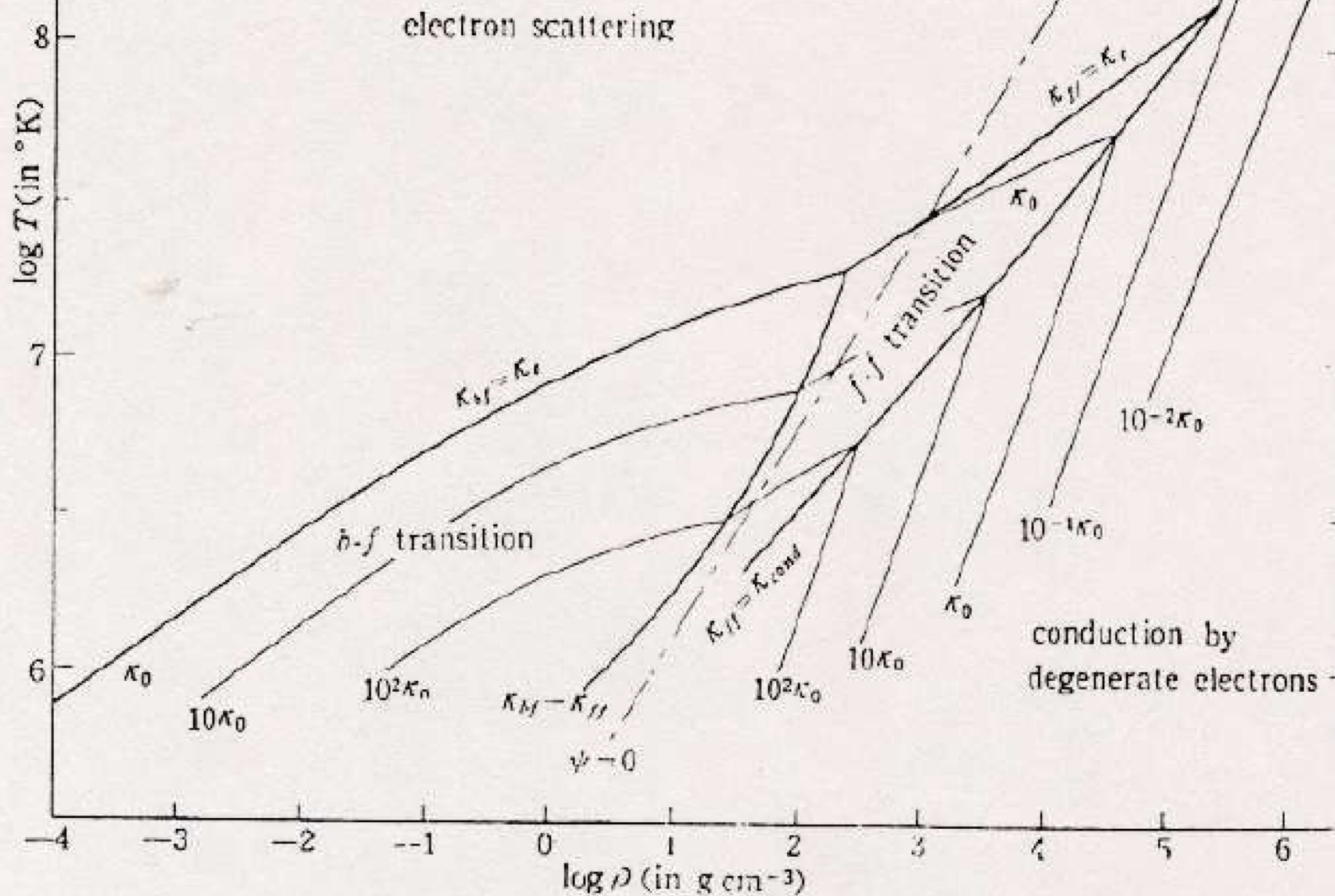
$$\kappa_{\text{H}^-} \sim 2.5 \times 10^{-31} (Z/0.02) \rho^{1/2} T^9 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$$

# Opacity

Massive supercomputer projects have calculated Rosseland mean opacities as a function of density and temperature.



# Opacity Sources





# Energy Transport: Radiation

In theory, there are 3 ways to transport heat:

- Conduction: Only important in white dwarfs and neutron stars
- Convection: mixing
- Radiation: diffusion of light due to absorption and re-emission.

Radiation is nothing more than the random walk of energy, where the mean free path is  $l_{\text{ph}} = 1/\kappa\rho$ . The expression for energy transport of this type is fairly simple:

$$F = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2} = -\frac{1}{3} c l_{\text{ph}} \frac{dU}{dr} = -\frac{1}{3} c l_{\text{ph}} \left( 4\pi T^3 \frac{dT}{dr} \right)$$

This is usually re-written using thermodynamical relations to

$$\frac{dT}{dr} = \frac{GM\rho T}{R^2 P} \nabla_{\text{rad}} \quad \text{where} \quad \nabla_{\text{rad}} = \frac{3\kappa L P}{16\pi a c G M T^4}$$

# Energy Transport: Convection

In general, convection is more efficient, *if* it exists. If a blob of material is displaced outward, does it continue to rise (taking its heat with it) or sink back to where it started? In other words, at location  $r + \delta r$ , is the blob denser or less dense than its new environment?

Therefore, for convection to occur  $\left(\frac{d\rho}{dr}\right)_{\text{blob}} < \left(\frac{d\rho}{dr}\right)_{\text{star}}$

After a bit of thermodynamic manipulation, this becomes

$$\frac{\partial \ln T}{\partial \ln P} = \nabla_{\text{ad}} < \nabla_{\text{rad}}$$

Note:  $\nabla_{\text{ad}}$  is a thermodynamic quantity intrinsic to the gas. For an ideal gas ( $P \propto \rho^\gamma$ , with  $\gamma=5/3$ ),  $\nabla_{\text{ad}} = 0.4$ . For pure radiation pressure ( $P \propto \frac{1}{3} aT^4$ ),  $\nabla_{\text{ad}} = 0.25$ .

# Nuclear Reaction Rates

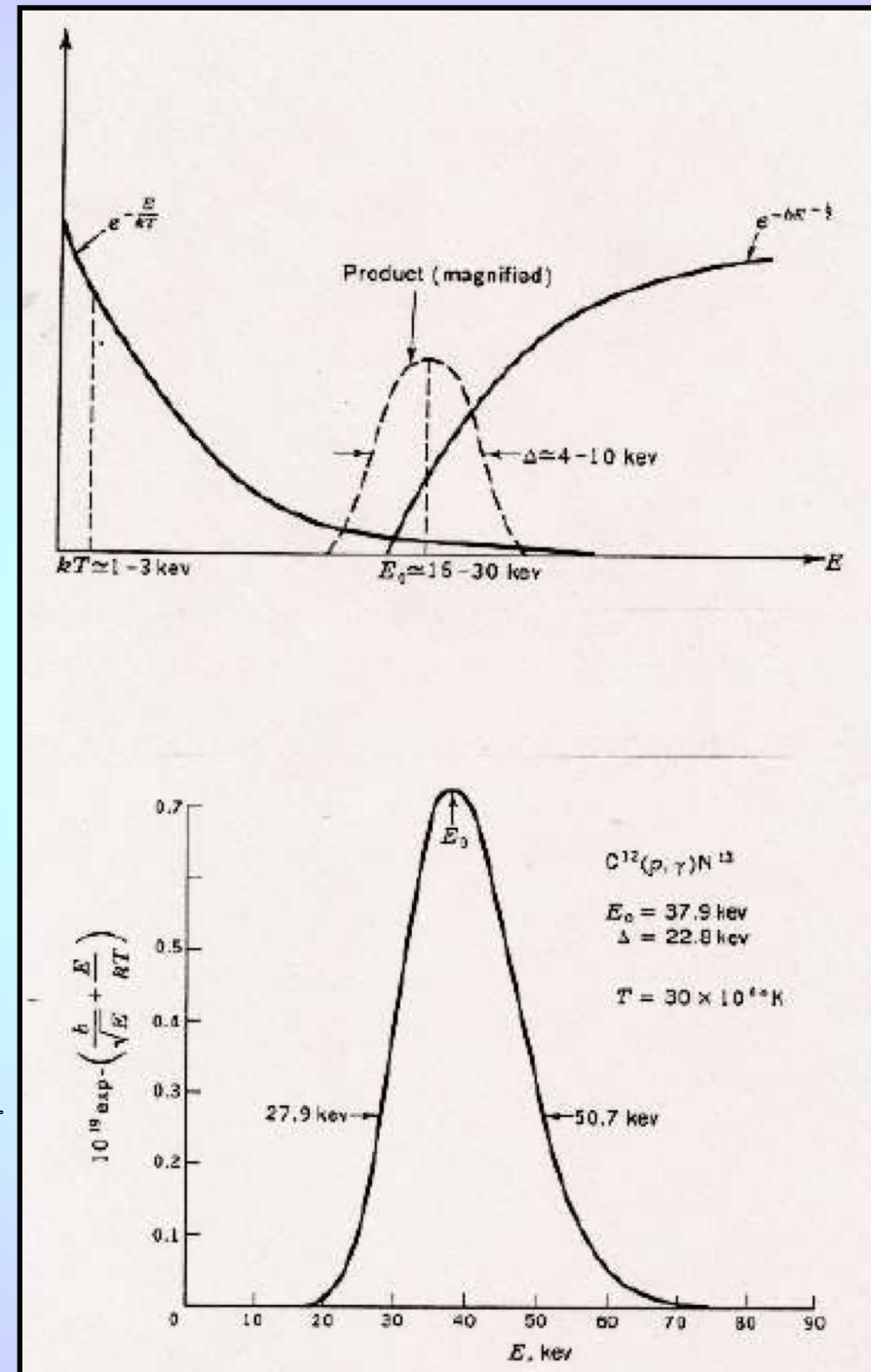
Most light-element nuclear reactions depend on density (squared) and temperature to some power. To compute that power, one has to integrate reaction rate cross-sections over the Maxwellian distribution.

The cross sections are energy dependent, since they depend on momentum and tunneling.

$$\sigma \propto \pi \lambda^2 \propto \left( \frac{1}{p^2} \right) \propto \frac{1}{E}$$

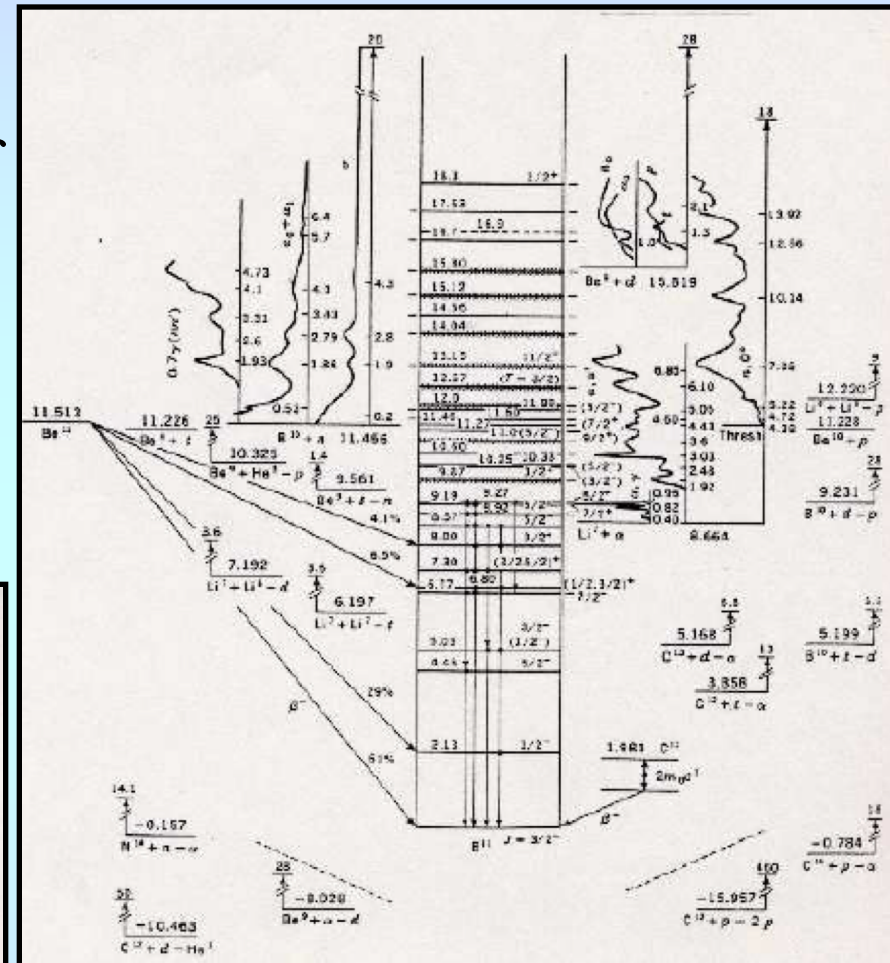
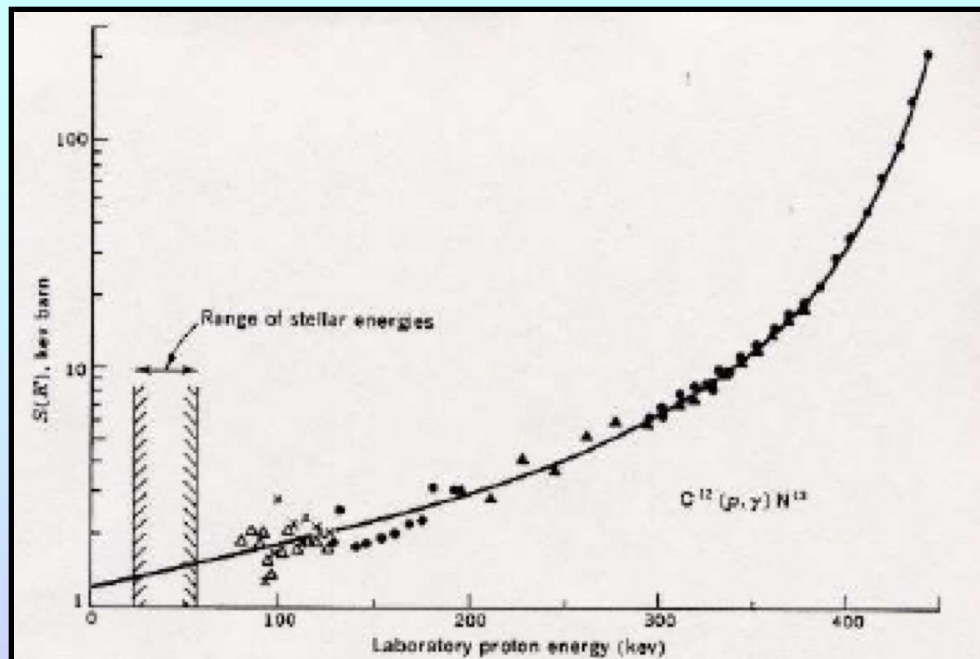
$$\sigma \propto \exp \left\{ -\frac{2\pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\hbar v} \right\} \propto \exp \left\{ -\frac{KZ_1 Z_2}{E^{1/2}} \right\}$$

$$\langle \sigma v \rangle = \frac{14.16}{T_6^{1/3}} (Z_1^2 Z_2^2 A)^{1/3} - \frac{2}{3}$$



# Nuclear Reaction Rates

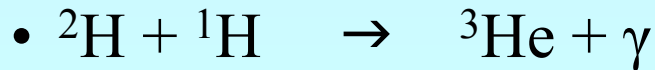
Most heavy-element nuclear reactions involve nuclear resonances, many of which are poorly known. This introduces uncertainty into some aspects of heavy element nucleosynthesis.



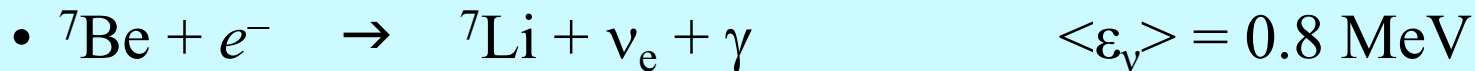
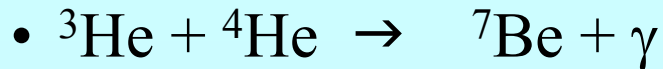
# Proton-Proton Chain

The Sun produces energy by fusing 4 hydrogen atoms into one helium atom, thereby creating 26.73 MeV per helium nucleus. Most of this happens via the proton-proton chain.

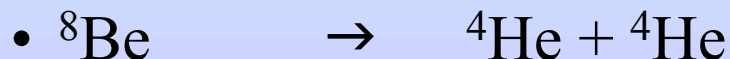
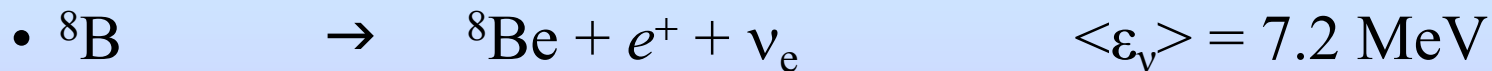
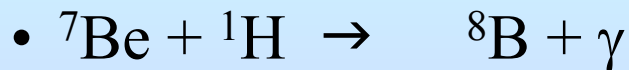
- PP I:



- PP II:



- PP III:



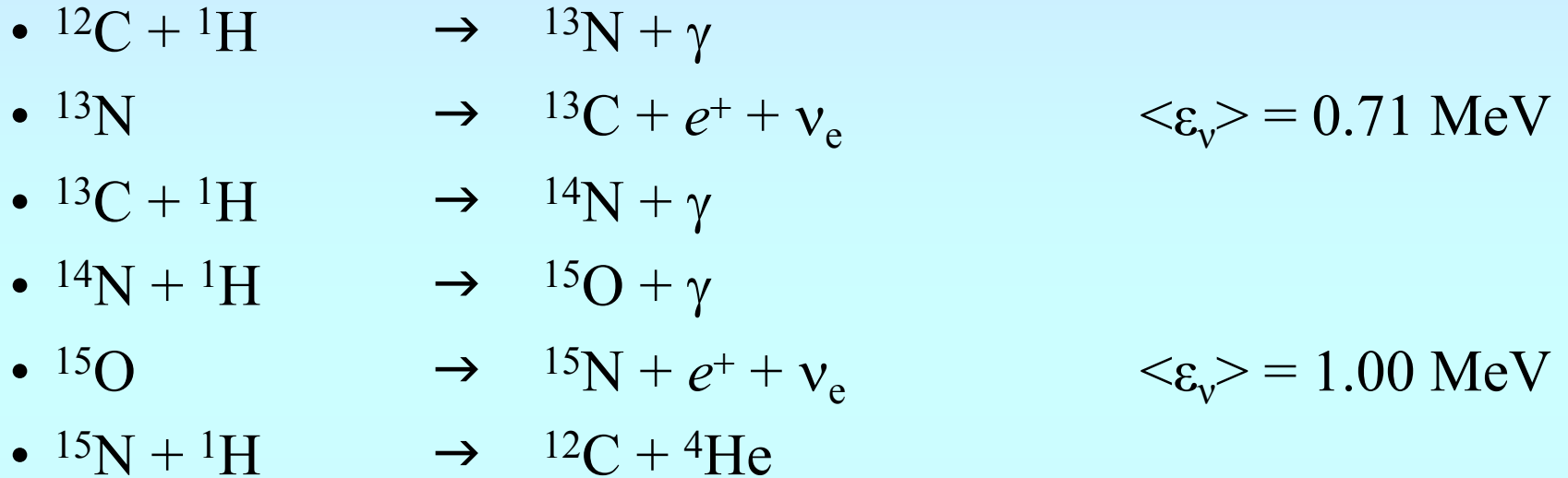


**NIST**  
National Institute of  
Standards and Technology  
U.S. Department of Commerce

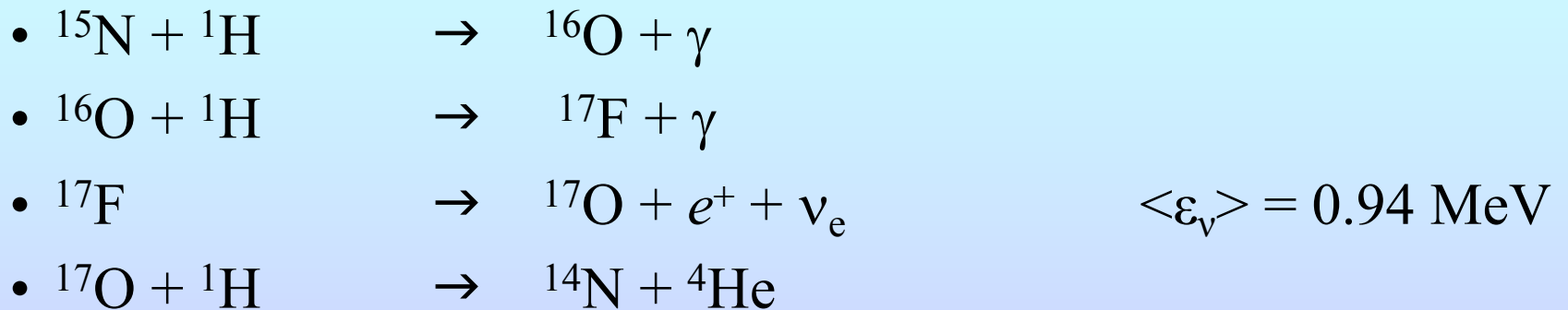
NIST SP 966 (September 2014)

# CNO Bi-Cycle

In higher mass stars, most hydrogen is fused via the CNO by-cycle. This chain fuses hydrogen to helium using CNO as a catalyst.



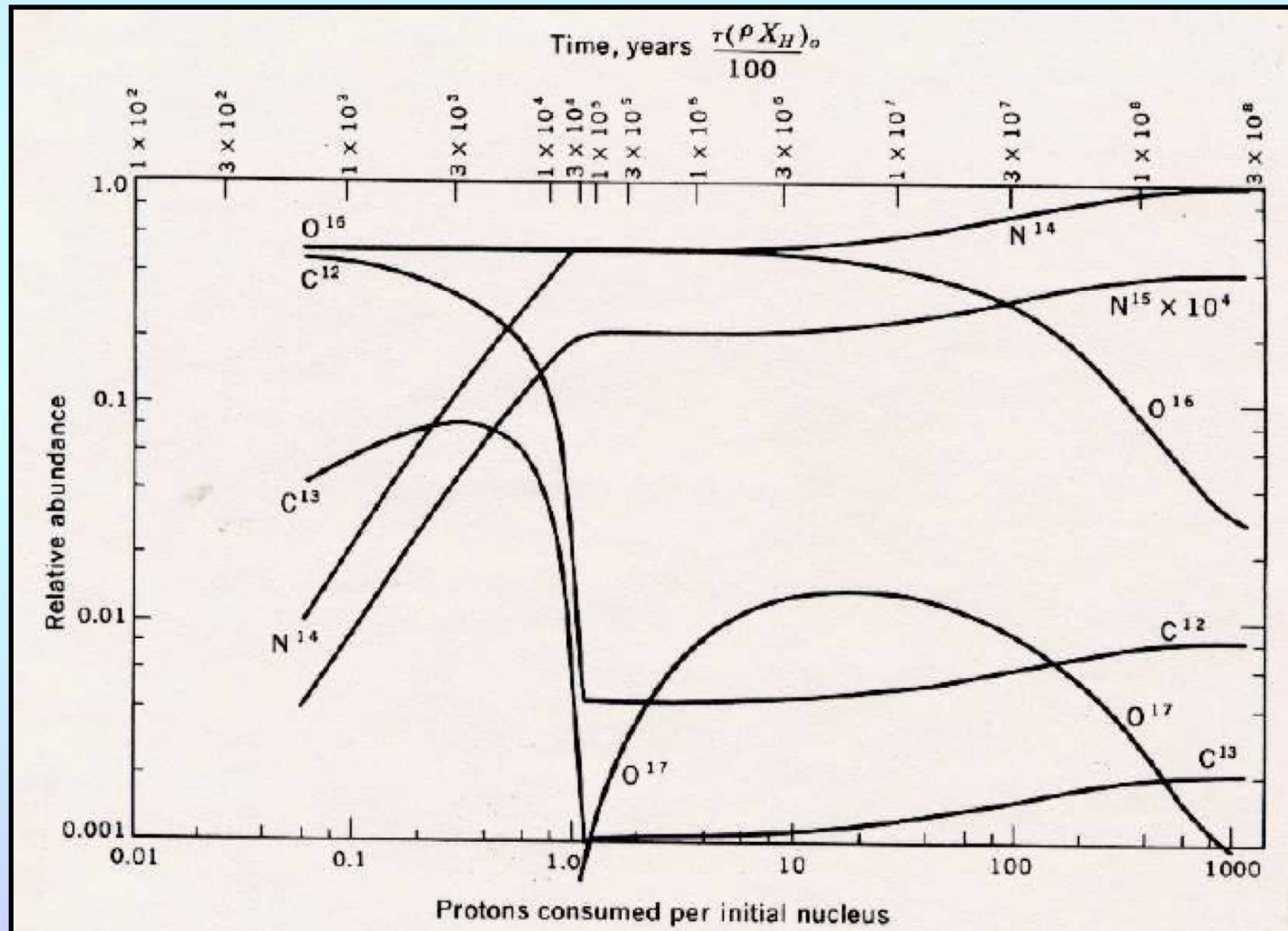
or (once every  $\sim 2500$  times)





# CNO Bi-Cycle

Note: the net effect of the CNO cycle is  $4\ ^1\text{H} \rightarrow\ ^4\text{He}$ . In the process, the relative abundances of CNO get changed. In particular, since  $^{14}\text{N}$  has the smallest cross section, it tends to get built up, while C is lost.

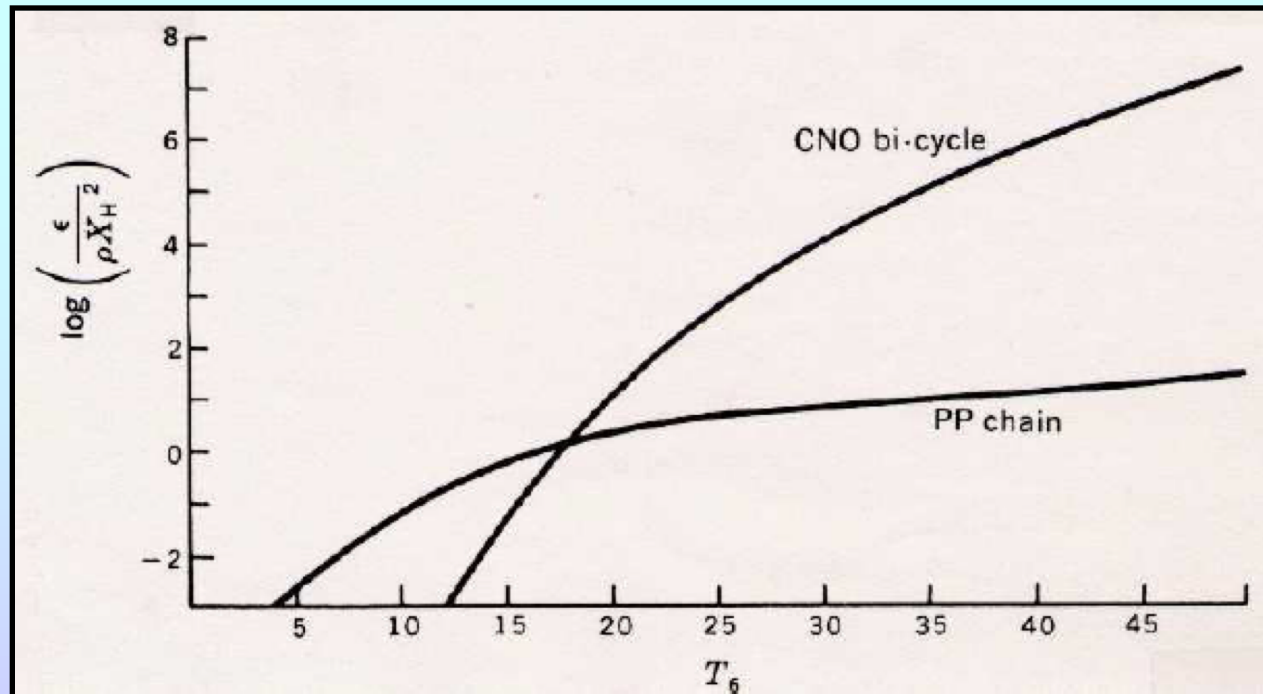


# Nuclear Reaction Rates

Since the proton-proton chain involves ions with the least amount of charge, it has the smallest temperature dependence of any reaction.

$$\epsilon_{\text{pp}} \propto \rho X^2 e^{-33.80/T_6^{1/3}} \text{ ergs s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

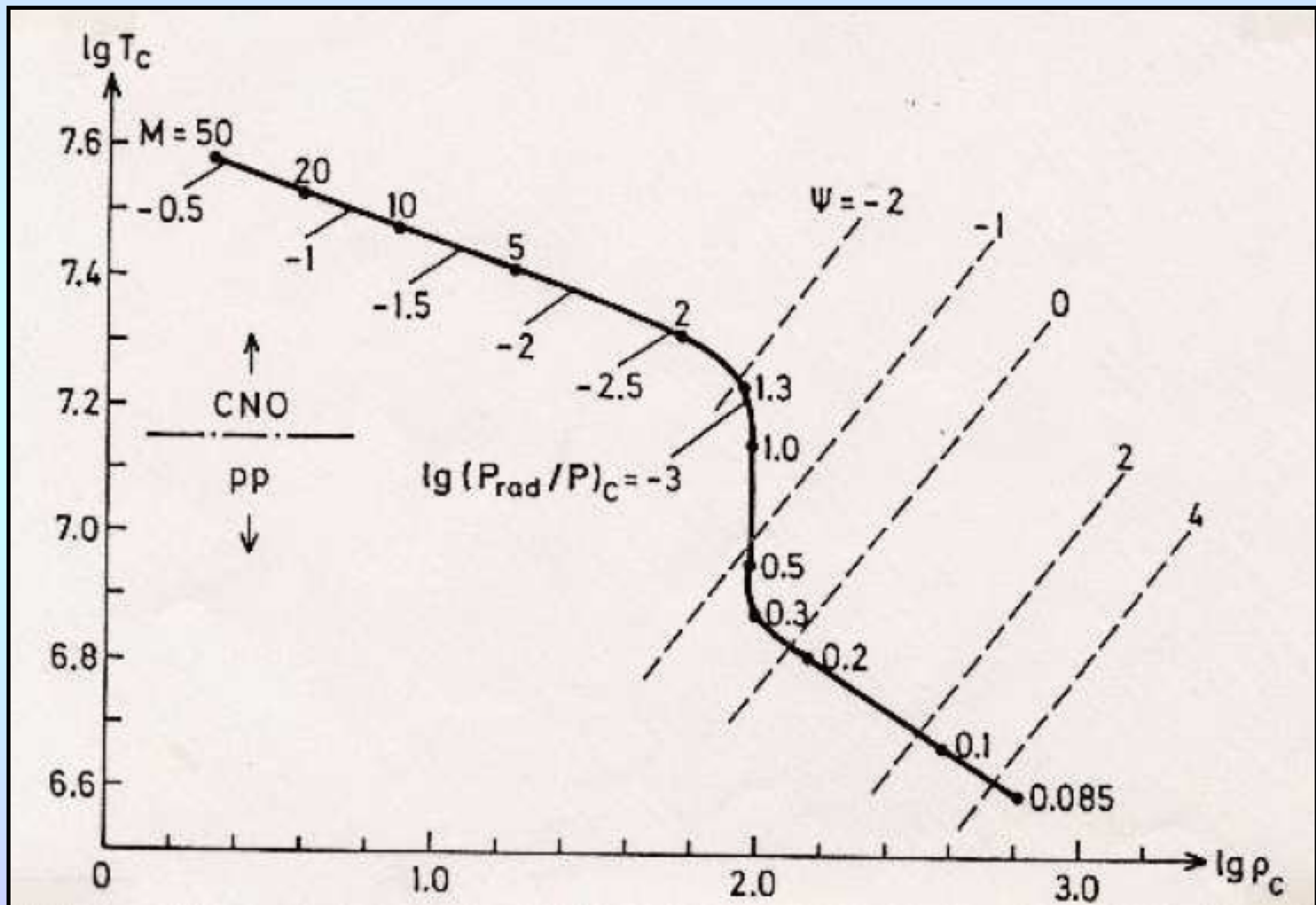
Thus, at  $T_6 \sim 5$ ,  $\epsilon_{\text{pp}} \propto T^6$ , while at  $T_6 \sim 20$ ,  $\epsilon_{\text{pp}} \propto T^{3.5}$ . Because CNO ions have more electrostatic repulsion, the temperature dependence of its process is stronger,  $\epsilon_{\text{CNO}} \propto T^{23}$  at  $T_6 \sim 10$  to  $\epsilon_{\text{CNO}} \propto T^{13}$  at  $T_6 \sim 50$ .



# The HR Diagram

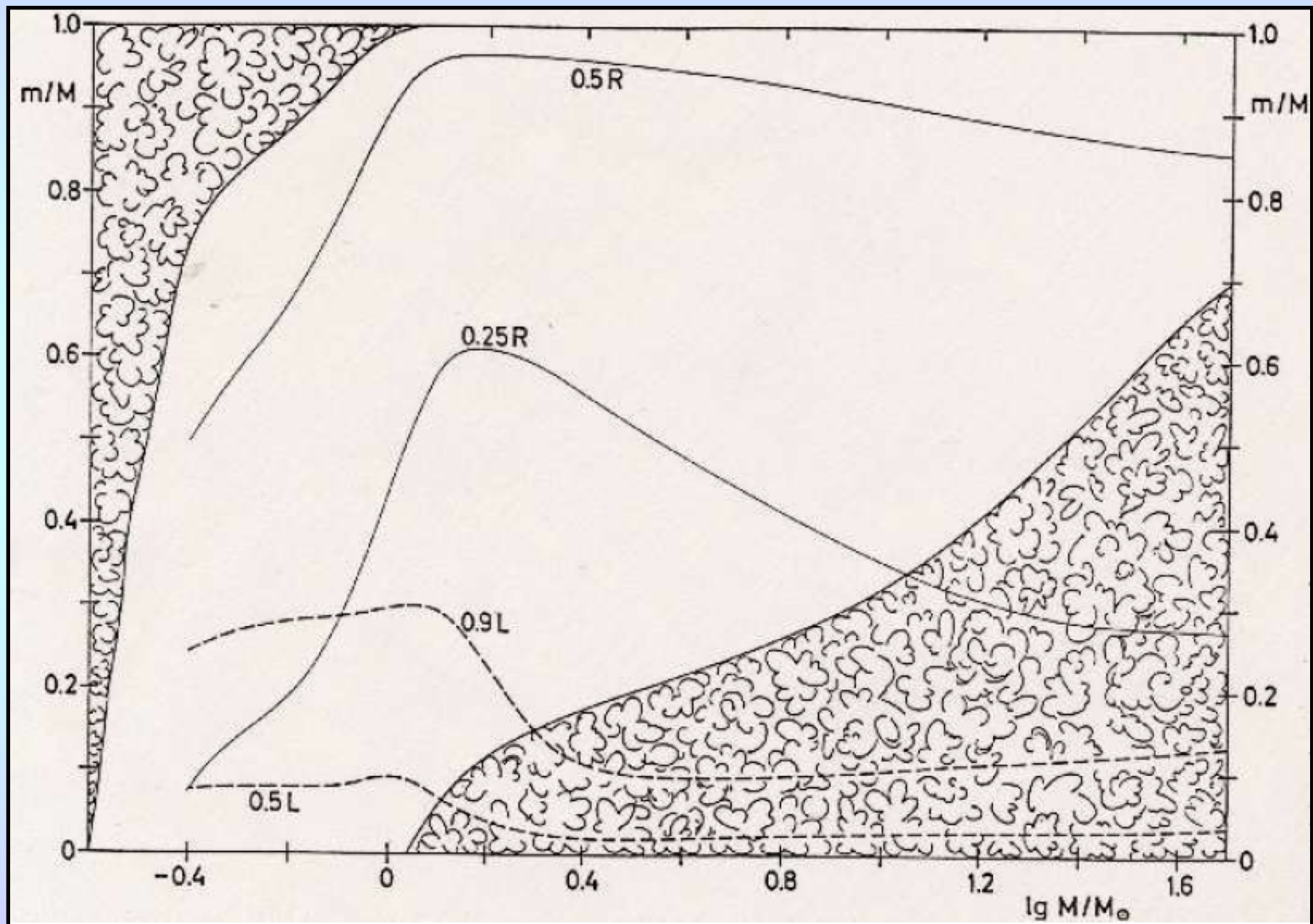


# The Central Temperature and Density for Main Sequence Stars

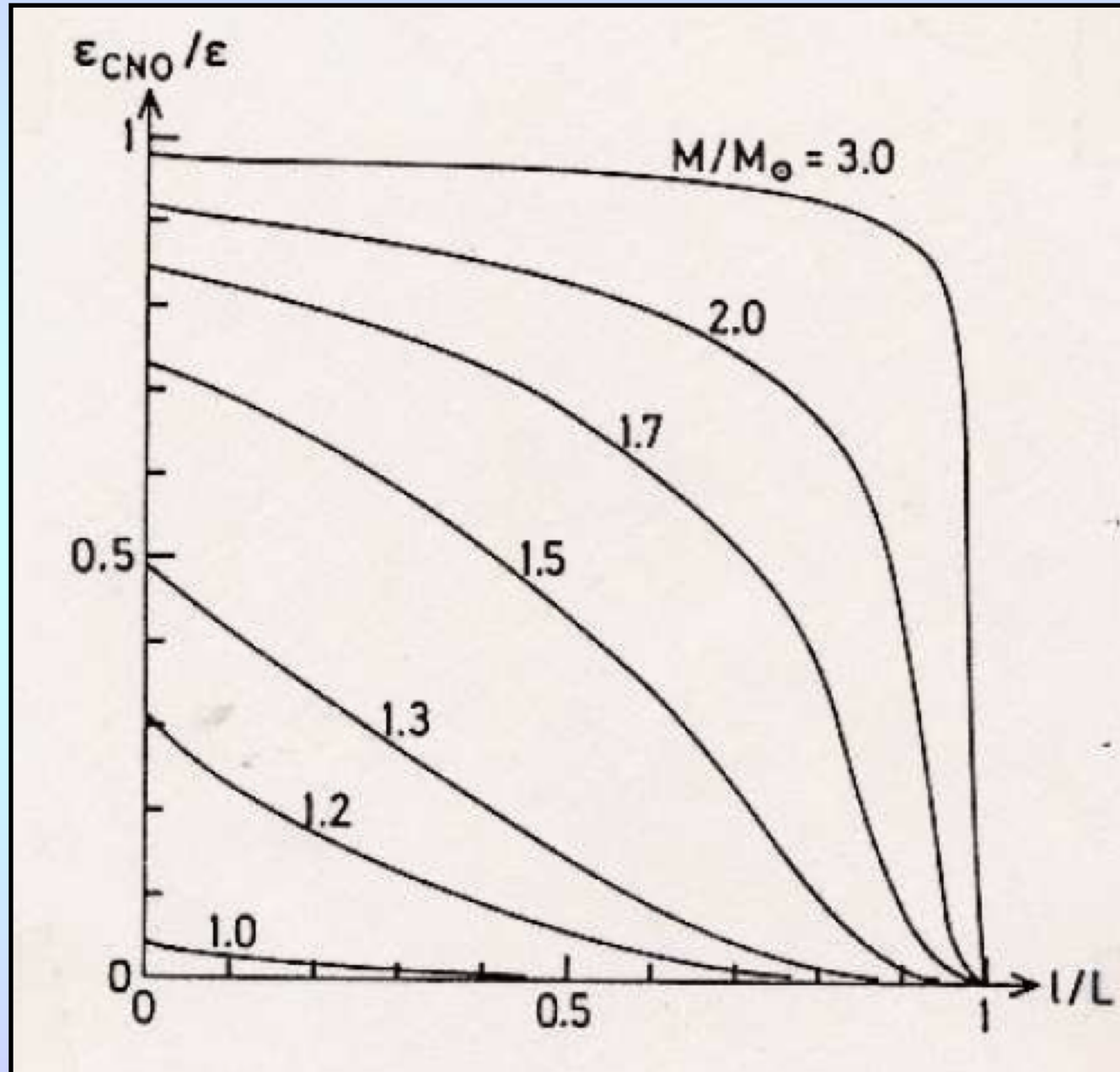




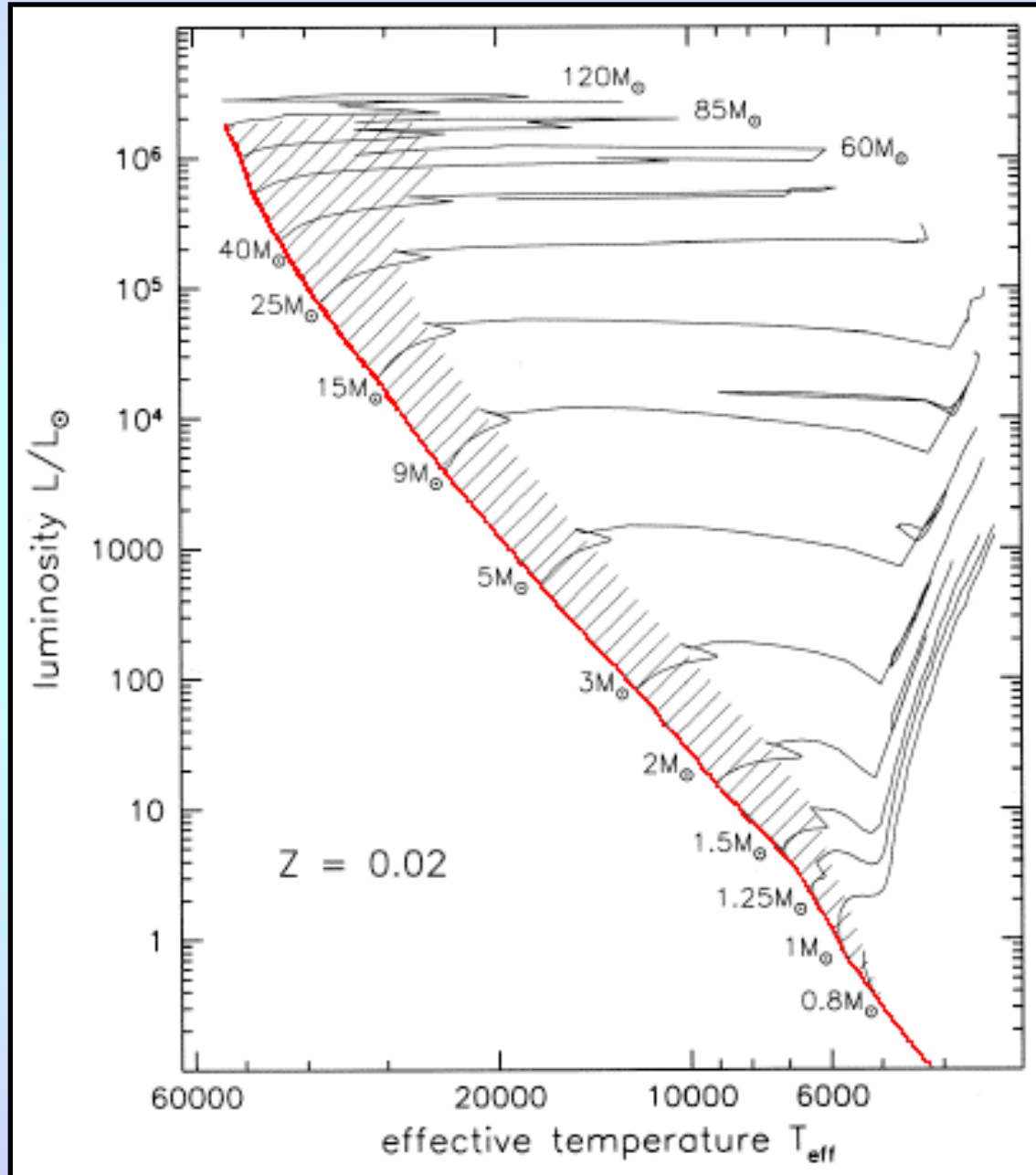
# Convection on the Main Sequence



# Importance of CNO Burning versus Stellar Mass



# Location of the Main Sequence



In general, the opacity of a star is proportional to its metal abundance (due to bound-free transitions and electrons supplied to  $\text{H}^-$ .) The lower the metal abundance, the smaller the opacity, the less energy is trapped in the star doing work, the smaller the star, and therefore the hotter the star. The metal-poor main sequence is bluer than the metal-rich main sequence.